DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 080 410   SO 005 984

AUTHOR   Litchen, Ruth E..
TITLE   How to Use Group Discussion..How to do it Series,
                Number 6..
INSTITUTION   National Council for the Social Studies, Washington,
                D.C.
REPORT NO   NCSS-Ser-6
PUB DATE   65
NOTE   8p.; Revised Edition
AVAILABLE FROM National Council for the Social Studies, 1201
                Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036
                ($0.25, Quantity Discounts)

EDRS PRICE   MF-$0.65 HC Not Available from EDRS..
DESCRIPTORS   *Classroom Techniques; *Discussion (Teaching
                Technique); Elementary Education; *Group Discussion;
                . Guidelines; Secondary Education; *Social Studies;
                *Teaching Methods; Teaching Models; Teaching
                Techniques; Values

ABSTRACT
                Suggestions for implementing group discussion
techniques in elementary and secondary classrooms are given in this
tip sheet for teachers which is one of a series. The need and nature
of discussion as a necessary force in the democratic way of life is
stressed. General information is provided on how discussion aids the
individual; the purposes of discussion; seating arrangement of
participants; size of groups; and other factors contributing to
successful discussion groups..Five steps of the thought process
analyzed by John Dewey -- recognition of the problem; location,
definition, and analysis of the problem; solutions; consideration of
solutions; and verification -- are discussed..In addition, common
pitfalls are examined such as minority domination, keeping on the
subject, and lagging discussion..Because variations exist within the
group structure a variety of techniques are included to ensure
cooperative group discussion along with a checklist which can be used
as a guide before discussion and afterwards as a means of
self-evaluation. The teacher's responsibilities and an evaluative
checklist toward good group discussion conclude the guide. (SJM)

HOW TO USE GROUP DISCUSSION

RUTH E. LITCHEN
Lawrence, Kansas

Bibliography Revision by:
Glen L. Nutter
George Peabody College for Teachers
Nashville, Tennessee

Discussion: A Democratic Force

The need for group discussion in contemporary American life is clearly recognized. Critical issues on both domestic and international fronts demand the use of effective, democratic procedures which will bring group intelligence to bear on problems.

Labor groups, international and national clubs, consumer and educational organizations, churches and other groups—all agree to the need for open discussion whether the issues are of world import or only pertinent to their particular needs.

But with this growing feeling that discussion is a necessary force in the democratic way of life comes the realization that numerous citizens lack adequate training and experience in discussion, and thus are not able to make real contributions to problem solving. We are a literate people for the most part. We read about our social, economic, and political life both to understand the present-day world and to learn about the past. But as in the realm of sports, music, theater, motion pictures, and television, we have become victims of "spectatoritis." As we have developed as individuals and as a national group, we have been taught to listen and in large measure to accept. Too often rather than trying to solve our own problems we wait for someone else to solve them for us.

In a democracy, the use of group processes and of group problem solving are essential. Unless we learn to cope intelligently and effectively with common problems democracy cannot survive.

Communication is necessary for cooperative enterprise. Of the several ways man has devised for communicating thoughts to his fellows, the oldest and most common is that of face-to-face exchange through speech. There are several advantages in this personal situation. An interchange of ideas stimulates interaction in such a way that something extra is generated—something more than the sum of the thinking of its members. Further, the individual develops and grows when he comes before a group to express himself. The very fact that he has learned to put his thoughts into words makes a difference in that person.

The process may develop somewhat in this manner: One member will make a suggestion about the problem; another may react to it by adding new evidence; a third objects by bringing out another side; a fourth sees a way of reconciling the original suggestion and the objection. The result is that the solution belongs not to any one individual but to the group itself. This example is over-simplified, of course, but almost everyone can recall a similar incident from his own experience. "Give and take" of this kind does much to create the group morale which is evidence of a well-integrated group; even more important, better solutions are the result.

Discussion Aids the Individual

Certain individual as well as group values can result from the discussion method. These are some that will accrue to the participating individual:

1. Increased ability to express oneself before a group.

2. Added power to do critical thinking. 3. Greater knowledge through shared experience. 4. Increased tolerance for views of others. 5. Better skills for critical evaluation of one's own and others' points of view. 6. Realization that "truth" is often complex and many-sided. 7. Increased ability to become a participating citizen on the basis of knowledge.

Note that these values come for the "participating individual." Not the one who only sits in on a discussion group, but the one who joins in their thinking and expresses himself, learns and grows through the experiences of group discussion.

Has Twofold Purpose

Two general purposes of discussion are policy making or planning for immediate action based on accepted values, and learning or resolving value conflicts for deferred action. These purposes function in almost every group situation, at all levels of maturity. The kind and amount of discussion will depend upon the many variables: among them, the purpose of the discussion, the nature of the problem, the amount of basic information on the problem which the participants have, the emotional reaction to the problem, and the age and experience of the discussants.

Many of the problems leading to policy making in classroom discussions arise as parts of larger units of work. For example, a first grade class is planning a trip to a fire station. Group planning is essential to provide for good conduct en route as well as during the visit. Later, as an outcome of the trip, the question may be raised: "How can we help the firemen?" From such a query another policy-making discussion might ensue.

Perhaps a majority of classroom discussions occur in order to learn about or resolve value conflicts. For example, a class in American Problems considers the question: "What is the fairest system of taxation that can pay for the protection and services we receive from national, state, and local budgets?" The action that follows may establish values which will be the basis for deferred action. On the other hand, it may lead to immediate action through a community service project such as providing interested civic groups with information on taxation. As the result of buying food for a party, a group of elementary children might raise the question: "Why must we pay a tax to the government on things we buy?" The less complex concepts involved here might be discussed and understood as a basis for deferred action.

Action, whether immediate and direct or deferred and

indirect, should be the ultimate goal of all problem solving and thus of discussion.[1]

Seating the Participants

The seating arrangement of the group can contribute materially to a successful discussion. To get attention and maximum participation, seats should be arranged to face one another. In the classroom, desk chairs may be placed in a circle, semicircle, or oval. Teachers and pupils can try out these groupings to see which is most satisfactory. Sometimes tables can be placed to form a hollow triangle, with pupils and teacher all seated around the outside facing one another. Probably best of all is the conference table arrangement. Here, as in adult conference groups, pupils in the classroom can meet around the table, discuss with one another and with the teacher the problem at hand, and arrive at generalizations of real value. In all cases, the teacher or group discussion leader will get more successful participation if he becomes a part of the group. Any arrangement of seats which puts the teacher in a dominant position or holds him apart is apt to act as a deterrent to discussion because the group may develop the attitude that it will be told all of the answers.

Guide to Straight Thinking

Although the seating may be an aid or hindrance to good discussion, it is after all only one factor. Excellent discussions have been carried on in rooms with seats screwed to the floor and everyone facing the front. What matters most is the quality of thinking.

It is commonly conceded that good group thinking follows the same general pattern as good individual thinking. John Dewey analyzed the thought process and broke it down into five steps, sometimes known as the scientific method or the process of "straight thinking." They are:

1. A felt difficulty, a recognized problem. 2. Location, definition, and analysis of the problem. 3. Suggestion of possible solutions. 4. Development, by reasoning, of the consequences of the solution (intellectualized development of the suggested solutions, action). 5. Further observation and experimentation (verification).[2]

No discussion need adhere to these steps in precise order. But they are excellent guideposts by which to check the "straightness" of the group's thinking.

[1]For teaching materials which directly relate the discussion method to community and civic action programs on specific issues see National Association of Secondary-School Principals, *Operation Atomic Vision*; and Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Toward Better Teaching*, 1949 Yearbook, Chapter 6.
[2]Dewey, John, *How We Think*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1910. p. 72.

The Problem

The problem, er felt difficulty, is the center of the discussion. Therefore, it must be one of concern to the group and within the experience of the individuals participating in its solution. The truism that "the discussion belongs to the group" must be kept in mind in choosing a problem. Special enthusiasm of the teacher or a small group of students should never be allowed to dominate the selection. If they do, the rest of the group will have only a nominal interest in the solution and the discussion will probably bog down.

A problem for work or discussion need not be a "difficulty": it may be a "concern" or an "interest." It need not be "controversial" in the common usage of that term, but it must be of sufficient importance and interest to warrant group consideration. However, it should not be so complex that the group cannot make headway toward its solution, and its scope should be limited enough that progress toward solution can be made in the time available. An elementary school class, for example, can scarcely deal adequately with the problems of what should be done with minority nationalities in Europe. but they may make progress with a problem involving minorities in their own school or community. Through success in considering limited phases of problems, they can better understand remote situations.

Among the various approaches that can be used to arouse interest in a problem area is the shared experience. This might be a field trip to a place of interest such as a government agency, distribution center or museum. Another possibility is the laboratory situation—using pictures, models, movies, radio, television, stories, and printed materials to stimulate discussion. Stating the problem in question form is perhaps the most effective way to point up the issue to be studied.

The Solution

The solution should not be proposed prematurely, that is, before most of the facts are in. Superficial reporting of authority or opinion is not enough; the thinking of the group must be based on specific facts resulting from adequate research. Sometimes skilled questioning will help the group see whether or not they are ready to consider solutions, and illustrations will show where a proposed solution might lead. These techniques encourage critical thinking by pointing up further issues involved in the problem. They may have to be suggested by the teacher at first; but as the group becomes more experienced in group discussion and more conscious of techniques of scientific thinking, individual members will gradually accept the responsibility. Care must be exercised, however, that the discussion does not degenerate into noisy argument, nor into conflicts based on personal animosities. It should be clearly understood that discussion is a cooperative enterprise for a common purpose, where the aim is consensus of the group on the best available solution.

Too often democracy is conceived solely as majority rule. True, a majority decision must be accepted when an issue comes to the test: but the ideal is to lead group thinking to the point of consensus as often as possible. Taking an early vote to see how the issue stands is not always a good policy; it may crystallize an unreasoned opposition and thus make a common solution more difficult. As the group becomes more proficient in discussion, and as each individual develops willingness to consider all relevant materials, consensus will become increasingly important to the group itself.

Common Pitfalls

Any socialized discussion group regardless of age level or experience is likely to encounter certain persistent difficulties. They must be recognized by group members (including the teacher), and attempts must be made to resolve them with fairness to each participant. The method of dealing with them must vary with each situation, since the difficulties take different forms in different groups. These common pitfalls include:

The problem of domination by a minority. Often a few participants are inclined to dominate the situation—to do all of the talking. The leader can encourage the less loquacious to enter the discussion by putting a question to them or asking their opinion. With wider participation, there will be less chance of domination by the few. The teacher may encourage participation through casual conversation outside of class, or by asking the reticent pupil to repeat something which he has said at another time. Sometimes the teacher may even quote him. After a pupil has made a contribution which is accepted and appreciated, he becomes more willing to make additional ones. Real interest in the problem on the part of both teacher and pupils will do much to draw out the timid.

The problem of holding to the issue. Another problem is that of keeping the remarks relevant to the subject at hand. Here the teacher or discussion leader must use careful judgment. The point raised may not be so irrelevant as it first appears to be; it may have a real relationship to the problem which does not appear on the surface. When the discussion gets obviously out of line, the leader can, by careful steering, bring the major point into focus

again. He may give a brief summary of the main points in the discussion thus far or call on one of the other participants to do so. A blackboard listing of major points will help to hold the discussion to the issue. Questions directed to various participants will bring them back to the topic.

It is particularly important to keep to the subject if the discussion involves policy making, that is, if certain issues must be considered and settled in order to clear the way for further action. The discussion leader need not work alone. Children and young people are quick to recognize irrelevancy, and if the subject is one in which they are genuinely interested, they will not want to see it discarded or passed over lightly. They will often bring in ideas themselves or raise questions which will again set the course of discussion in proper channels. Children as well as adults need to learn through experience that keeping a discussion on its proper course is a matter of judgment and guidance, not of sarcasm or outspoken criticism.

If the purpose of the discussion is to build informational background, the group may wish to pursue the digression for a time, finding it more profitable than the subject under discussion. If so, they should be allowed the opportunity but all members should recognize that they have temporarily left the main issue.

The problem of lagging discussion. Sometimes discussions seem to stall. The thinking or talking goes in circles and no progress is evident. Inadequate information upon which to base a tentative solution is often the cause. In this case the teacher or some other participant needs to point out the difficulty, and the discussion should be postponed until the needed evidence can be gathered. Sometimes the issues need to be sharpened: this is often done best by summarizing what has been said and pointing out what needs to be decided. Many discussion groups fail to use the summary to its fullest advantage. Every group needs to stop occasionally in the course of discussion to take stock of what has been done and what remains to be accomplished. Sometimes contributions become repetitious. The leader, teacher or student, has an obligation to move the discussion along to the next point when it is clear that the one at hand has been exhausted. Again the summary is a useful technique.

Variations Within

Groups vary as do individuals. The problems mentioned above will be somewhat different from group to group, and from day to day within the same group. Factors which condition the nature of the group include: (a) the size of the group, (b) the maturity of its mem-

bers, (c) the types of experiences of the individuals within in the group and of the group itself, (d) the amount of practice individual members have had in democratic group problem-solving situations, (e) how long they have been in close association, (f) the intensity of interest in the problem, and (g) the leader's skill and understanding of discussion techniques. There are levels of development in the integration of groups as well as of individuals.

An aggregation of people brought together to solve a common problem is seldom a well-unified group until it has worked together for some time. The common problem becomes the unifying force. This is as true in an elementary or secondary school classroom as in an adult organization.

Initial lack of integration makes desirable some type of leadership, temporarily appointed or elected, to help develop group action. In the classroom, the teacher usually provides it in this initial stage. As soon as the group can work together relatively well, however, students may take over as discussion leaders and may be expected to develop real skill.

In the earlier stages the teacher may need to choose leaders from the group. As soon as students begin to understand the purpose and pattern of discussion and to know each other well, it is both "safe" and democratic to turn selection over to them. Their sense of fitness will usually guarantee that the leadership is passed to pupils particularly interested in given materials. Leadership within the group should shift as often as is practicable or necessary. Each member has some special ability or knowledge which qualifies him to direct certain activities. These potentials should be recognized and used whenever possible. There appears to be a positive relationship between successful group integration and the ability to arrive at higher levels of thinking and discussion when interests and intelligence levels are similar. Background homogeneity and similarity of interests are factors that contribute to the solidarity of the group.

The leader's function is to direct cooperative activity so that the group is able to realize its fullest potentialities in the thinking process. He must remember, however, that the discussion belongs to the group. No individual (not even the teacher) should exploit the discussion for his own ends at the expense of the class, no matter how worthy the goal. The leader needs a variety of techniques, such as the following:

● Write on the blackboard the question to be discussed; call attention to its phraseology when the discussion threatens to wander.

- Phrase questions so that a "discussing" answer, rather than "yes" or "no," is required. "Why" and "how" questions tend to bring out discussion better than do "what?" "when?" or "where?" The last three often stifle discussion, because the answer to any one of them may seem to settle the problem.

- However, yes or no questions may be used to draw timid persons into the discussion.

- Phrase questions impartially, so that they are not leading questions.

- Never answer questions: rather, refer them to a member of the group.

- If no one offers to answer a question, rephrase it.

- Sometimes refer a question to the whole group, asking for a volunteer response

- Sometimes refer a question to a member of the group who has not taken an active part, but only if there is good reason to believe he can contribute.

- Follow a participant's comment by two or three questions growing out of it.

- Use summaries, as suggested above.

- In summarizing, give credit for major points and opinions to the individuals who contributed them.

- Ask another participant, perhaps a reticent one, to summarize.

- Accept each contribution as worthy of thought.

- If a contribution is to one side of the main point, make a note of it and say. "That is an important factor. May we come back to it when we reach that part of our problem?"

- If a contribution seems irrelevant, ask the contributor to explain his point a bit further, to clarify its relation to the topic at hand.

- Use a blackboard to list the arguments on different sides of the question: advantages and disadvantages of a course of action; probable results of a course of action.

The leader may profit from a checklist which he can use as a guide before the discussion and afterwards as a means of self-evaluation. The following is a sample.[3]

1. Was there any evidence that the conference leader knew what he was trying to accomplish?

[3]Klinefelter. C. F., and Battin, Charles T. *Social Leadership*, U. S. Office of Education. Federal Security Agency, Bulletin 1945. No. 231. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1945. p. 13-14.

2. Was the leader able to handle the discussion so as to avoid confusion of thinking either on the part of the group or on his own part?

3. Was the leader's background work effective in assisting the group to organize and clarify their thinking?

4. Did the leader try to force his ideas on the group?

5. Was the leader able to keep still and let the group talk?

6. Did the leader allow time for the group to think it out for themselves?

7. Did the leader show good judgment as to the proper time for summarizing or crystallizing the discussion?

8. Did the leader avoid being sidetracked and demonstrate ability to hold the discussion to the main topic under consideration; did he know when and how to get back to the main question after being sidetracked?

9. Did the leader throw questions back to the group in accordance with good conference procedure?

10. Was good distribution of discussion secured or were a few individuals permitted to monopolize it?

11. Did the leader maintain control of the group without appearing to dominate?

12. Did the leader exhibit resourcefulness in the use of suitable and effective devices to stimulate and clarify thinking?

13. Was the leader able to sense "dynamite" situations and handle them effectively?

14. Did the leader guide the group thinking through the steps of the conference procedure?

Size and Progress

It may be well to add a word at this point about size of discussion groups. There is no fixed minimum or maximum that can be set because the other variables already mentioned must be considered. However, two general statements seem possible. First, the group should be large enough to provide stimulation. Second, if the group is large. procedure will need to be more formal; in other words. it will take longer to reach the higher levels of integration.

As the level of integration increases within the class group. the leadership moves from teacher to pupil leader, from pupil leaders to group. The third level requires a high degree of group cohesiveness and should be the goal toward which all groups strive. At this level leadership is

not centered in any one individual except as he temporar-
ily-functions because of his unique ability to give a bit of
evidence, suggest a possible solution, or raise a pertinent
question. Each person is allowed freedom to present his
own ideas honestly in the discussion. Speakers do not need
to be recognized: hands are seldom raised for permission
to speak. When a pupil senses that he has a worthwhile
addition to make, feels that a summary is needed. or
wishes to raise a question or challenge a point, he does
so, carrying his share of the group responsibility in solv-
ing the problem at hand. This kind of procedure means
that interrelationships in the group have been developed
on a sound basis of respect for the opinions of one's fel-
lows, on sportsmanship in awaiting one's turn, on desire
to get the job done in the best way possible, and on a
feeling of group morale in the classroom developed through
real activities.

The Teacher's Place

The teacher must be cognizant of the dynamics of
group development if discussion is to flourish and grow
into a democratic technique under his guidance. He must
be sensitive to the total situation, knowing when to take
the lead; when to wait and watch. This writer's concept
of the teacher's role has been one of guidance and counsel,
not of authority or dictatorship. Real group discussion
is never found in an authoritarian situation.

The teacher has certain responsibilities for maintain-
ing a learning situation in the classroom. He must have
a sense of direction for himself and his students and have
sound ideas about methods by which they may arrive
at their goals. He must always be a responsible member
of the group whether there is an acting discussion leader
or not. His job is to aid the individual and the group
in its growth and development. As the adult leader he
can never shunt these responsibilities onto students.

Listed below are some of the most important among
the teacher's manifold responsibilities. He should:

1. See that all of the really important facts bearing
on the problem have been considered, perhaps point-
ing out material that has been forgotten or ignored.

2. Make sure that the process of group thinking is based
on the scientific method which means "straight think-
ing." (On all levels the teacher should try to help
students learn to recognize and analyze that process
for themselves.)

3. Be certain that the important and appropriate con-
cepts or generalizations have been drawn from the
discussion.

4. Help each, member of the group to develop respect
for his fellows and recognize his own responsibility
to the group.

5. See that the discussion remains focused on the solu-
tion of the problem and that it never becomes per-
sonally directed toward an individual or group of
individuals.

6. Plan so that the group is steadily advancing to a
higher level of development in problem solving.

7. Be aware of the need for adaptation to individual
differences in terms of abilities, skills, knowledge,
experiential background, and interests of partici-
pants in the discussion.

8. Be alert to maintain a learning situation if the self-
discipline of the group breaks down badly.

Evaluation of the Method

Occasionally the teacher (and the discussion leaders of
more mature groups) needs to pause to see what direction
progress is taking in group discussion. The following ques-
tions might serve as guides:

1. Have the discussions really belonged to the group;
have the topics been chosen along the lines of
pupils' interests and have they been built on their
experience?

2. Has sharing experiences helped to push and clarify
pupils' thinking?

3. Has it made pupils realize that there are many ways
of thinking about a problem; that there are no
formulas for solving problems, but that each must
be carefully considered in its particular setting?

4. Has it made the pupils more willing to participate
and carry through?

5. Has it made the pupils more discriminating but also
more tolerant of varying points of view?

6. Have the discussions followed the five steps for
"straight thinking?"

7. Have the pupils increased their proficiency in group
problem solving: have the discussions helped build
esprit de corps?

8. Have attitudes been developed which will express
themselves in action, *i.e.*, in terms of better citizen-
ship and democratic behavior?

9. Many discussion leaders, among them alert teach-
ers, have found it helpful to have participants fill
out a brief questionnaire after the discussion. The
forms should be unsigned, and should urge the
participant to be frank. A few sample questions are:

(a) Was the discussion very interesting? Mildly interesting? Not at all? (b) Did you learn something new about the subject? Much? A little? Nothing? (c) Has your understanding of the subject grown? (d) How much did the leader talk? Too much? Just enough? Too little? (e) Did you participate in the discussion? Once? Often? Not at all?

Similar questions fitting the need of the particular group or point of discussion, or both, would give the leader insight in planning for further discussions.

As teacher and pupils become more skilled in discussion techniques and continue to grow in problem-solving ability, changes should become perceptible. Attitudes based on value concepts should begin to change. Active participation in school and community projects for the common good should follow. Unless something definite happens as a consequence of discussion, it becomes a hollow, meaningless form of verbal exercise for those who engage in it. However, action is sometimes deferred and attitudes and their changes are difficult to measure. This should not be cause for teachers to despair. It should stimulate them to renewed vigor in searching for effective techniques and evaluation instruments to measure them. Certainly group discussion in social studies instruction is of key significance and worthy of further study, practice, and research.

Suggested References

Books

ALEXANDER, WILLIAM M., and HALVERSON, PAUL M. *Effective Teaching in Secondary Schools*. New York: Rinehart and Company, 1956. Chapter 7.

AUER, J. JEFFERY, and EWBANK, HENRY LEE. *Handbook for Discussion Leaders*. Revised edition. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954.

BARNLUND, DEAN C., and HAIMAN, FRANKLYN S. *The Dynamics of Discussion*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1960.

CANTOR, NATHANIEL. *Dynamics of Learning*. Third edition. Buffalo: Henry Stuart, Inc., 1956.

CARPENTER, HELEN McCRACKEN, editor. *Skill Development in Social Studies*. Thirty-Third Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: National Council for the Social Studies, a department of the National Education Association. 1963. Chapters 3 and 8.

CARTWRIGHT, DORWIN, and ZANDER, ALVIN, editors. *Group Dynamics: Research and Theory*. Second edition. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson, 1960.

COMBS, ARTHUR W., and SNYGG, DONALD, *Individual Behavior*. Revised edition. New York: Harper and Row, 1959. Chapter 18.

EWBANK, HENRY LEE, and AUER, J. JEFFERY. *Discussion and Debate*. Second edition. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1951.

FRASER, DOROTHY McCLURE, and WEST, EDITH. *Social Studies in the Secondary Schools*. New York: The Ronald Press, 1961. Chapter 8.

GRAMBS, JEAN D.; IVERSON, WILLIAM J.; and PATTERSON, FRANKLIN. *Modern Methods in Secondary Education*. Revised edition. New York: Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1958. Chapters 9 and 10.

GROSS, RICHARD E., and ZELENY, LESLIE D. *Educating Citizens for Democracy*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1958.

HALL, D. M. *Dynamics of Group Action*. Danville, Ill.: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1957.

HARNACK, R. VICTOR, and FEST, THORREL B. *Group Discussion: Theory and Technique*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1964.

HULLFISH, H. GORDON, and SMITH, PHILIP G. *Reflective Thinking: The Method of Education*. New York: Dodd, Mead and Co., 1961. Chapters 12 and 13.

HUNT, MAURICE P., and METCALF, LAWRENCE E. *Teaching High School Social Studies*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955. Chapter 8.

JAROLIMEK, JOHN. *Social Studies in Elementary Education*. Second edition. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1963. p. 197-204.

JOHNSON, EARL S. *Theory and Practice of the Social Studies*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1956. Chapter 19.

KELTNER, JOHN W. *Group Discussion Processes*. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1957.

LEWENSTEIN, MORRIS R. *Teaching Social Studies in Junior and Senior High Schools*. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1963. p. 365-390.

MERRITT, EDITH P. *Working with Children in Social Studies*. San Francisco: The Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1961. Chapter 5.

MICHAELIS, JOHN U. *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*. Third edition. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963. Chapter 8.

PATTERSON, FRANKLIN, editor. *Citizenship and a Free Society*. Thirtieth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: National Council for the Social Studies, a department of the National Education Association, 1963. Chapter 11.

WESLEY, EDGAR B., and WRONSKI, STANLEY P. *Teaching Social Studies in High Schools*. Fifth edition. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1964. Chapter 20.

Articles

ANDERSON, M. P. "Roles of the Teacher of Discussion; with Discussion." *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 46: 176-188; April 1960.

ANDERSON, RICHARD. "Learning in Discussions: A Resume of the Authoritarian-Democratic Studies." *Harvard Educational Review* 29: 201-215; Summer 1959.

CARROLL, A. "How to Conduct a Class Discussion." *Grade Teacher* 74:47; September 1956.

FAUSTI, R. P., and LUKER, A. H. "Phenomenological Approach to Discussion." *Speech Teacher* 14: 19-23; January 1965.

GREEN, A. S. "Class Discussions: How to Evaluate Them." *Instructor* 66: 107; February 1957.

HOOVER, K. H. "Panel Discussions Can be Effective." *Clearing House* 36: 14-15; September 1961.

HOOVER, K. H. "Technique for Evaluating General Class Discussion." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* 44: 144-146; February 1960.

HUNT, MAURICE P. "Leading Group Discussion." *Social Education* 15: 71-74; February, 1951.

JENKINS, M. "Making Talking Times Effective." *Instructor* 71: 87-88 March 1962.

JOHNSON, L. H. "Abuses of Group Discussion." *School and Society* 85: 324-326; November 9, 1957.

KEHOE, R. E., and STEPHENSON, O. W. "Free Inquiry into Controversial Issues." *Clearing House* 25: 110-111; October 1950.

LEWIN, KURT. "Dynamics of Group Action." *Educational Leadership* 1:195-200; January 1944.

McKEAN, R. C. "Four Dangers in Class Discussion." *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* 42: 82-83; October 1958.

OHLES, J. F. "Mechanics of Discussion." *Journal of Secondary Education* 40: 16-18; January 1965.

OLIVER, DONALD and BAKER, SUSAN. "The Case Method." *Social Education* 23: 25-29; January 1959.

PURVELL, E. J. "Group Dynamics in Social Studies." *Instructor* 72: 94+; October 1962.

ROGERS, CARL. "Significant Learning in Therapy and Education." *Educational Leadership* 16: 232-242; January 1959.

ROSELLE, DANIEL. "Break Up That School Discussion Group." *Clearing House* 28: 332-333; February 1954.

STOVALL, THOMAS F. "Lecture vs. Discussion." *Social Education* 20: 10-12; January 1956.

TENNENBAUM, S. "Carl Rogers and Nondirective Teaching." *Educational Leadership* 16: 296-302; February 1959.

WATKINS, LLOYD I. "Some Problems and Solutions in Teaching Group Discussion." *Speech Teacher* 10: 211-214; September 1961.

XAVIER, SISTER MARY. "Discussion: A Useful Teaching Method." *Clearing House* 38: 33-37; September 1963.